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Photocatalytic carbon oxidation with nitric oxide



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ABSTRACT

The photocatalytic oxidation of carbon black on TiO_2 using nitric oxide as an oxidizing agent was investigated. Layer-wise deposited carbon and TiO_2 powder was illuminated with UVA light in the presence of NO at parts per million concentrations in dry and hydrated carrier gas at a temperature of $150\,^{\circ}$ C. Carbon was photocatalytically converted mainly into CO_2 , and NO mainly into N_2 . Carbon oxidation rates of $7.2\,\mu\text{g/h/mgTiO}_2$ were achieved in the presence of $3000\,\text{ppm}$ NO. Under these experimental conditions in the absence of molecular oxygen, formation of surface nitrates causing TiO_2 photocatalyst deactivation is suppressed. Addition of water enhances surface nitrate formation and catalyst deactivation.

NO and carbon particulate matter are air pollutants emitted by diesel engines. Elimination of soot collected on a diesel particulate filter through oxidation is a demanding reaction requiring temperatures in excess of 250 °C. The present study opens perspectives for a low-temperature regeneration strategy for the diesel particulate filter that simultaneously performs $DeNO_x$ reactions.

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1. Introduction

Particulate matter (PM) emissions generated in diesel engines have gained considerable attention due to the increasing number of diesel vehicles and due to their possible negative impacts on human health and environment [1–3]. There is increasing evidence on causal relationships between several diseases (e.g. cardiovascular and respiratory diseases) and chronic exposure to particulate matter [4,5]. The increasing concern has led to the introduction of more stringent exhaust emissions standards which necessitate the implementation of sophisticated exhaust gas purification systems in vehicles [6].

Currently, PM is removed from exhaust gas using a diesel particulate filter (DPF) [7]. PM trapped by DPF needs to be removed from the filter to avoid increasing backpressure which would degrade diesel engine performance. Periodic or continuous regeneration minimizes the risk of uncontrolled carbon burning in the filter [6]. Oxidation of retained PM to CO₂ in a diesel particulate filter is an evident way of filter regeneration. Oxidation of carbon using O₂ requires high temperatures of 500–550 °C [8]. Compared to O₂, NO₂ is a much more powerful oxidizing agent. In continuously

regenerated PM traps, NO emitted by the engine is oxidized to NO_2 over an oxidation catalyst positioned in front [8]. NO_2 is able to oxidize carbon at temperatures as low as $250\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ [9–13]. Reaction mechanisms of the oxidation of carbon by NO_2 in the presence of water vapor and molecular oxygen are well documented [12–15]. In the carbon oxidation reaction, the NO_2 molecules are reduced mainly to NO:

$$C + 2NO_2 \rightarrow CO_2 + 2NO \tag{1}$$

$$C + NO_2 + \frac{1}{2}O_2 \rightarrow CO_2 + NO$$
 (2)

Since the DPF does not eliminate NO_x , an additional De NO_x system needs to be implemented to eliminate the NO downstream of the DPF [16,17]. Reduction of NO_x using PM to N_2 instead of NO:

$$C + 2NO \rightarrow CO_2 + N_2 \tag{3}$$

would eliminate the need of a separate DeNO_x system downstream of the DPF.

Selective formation of N_2 has been observed in the reaction of carbon with NO in the temperature range $600-1000\,^{\circ}C$ [18]. The formation of CO_2 and CO can be described globally by Eq. (3) combined with Eqs. (4) and (5) [19,20]:

$$2C + 2NO \rightarrow 2CO + N_2 \tag{4}$$

$$2CO + 2NO \rightarrow 2CO_2 + N_2$$
 (5)

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The simultaneous elimination of two pollutants, viz. carbon particles and NO via reactions (3)–(5) is attractive in view of automotive applications, but the very high temperatures required for these reactions are impractical. The temperature of diesel exhaust gas in latest generation vehicles remains below the 250 $^{\circ}$ C threshold for regeneration, especially during urban driving conditions [21]. Regeneration of a DPF often necessitates additional heating, which is achieved by combustion of fuel injected in the exhaust gas, representing a fuel penalty.

Photocatalytic processes could be an attractive alternative for accelerating depollution reactions at low temperature. Titanium dioxide is a popular photocatalyst for air as well as water treatment [22,23], because of the large band gap energy of TiO₂ materials (anatase: 3.2 eV, rutile: 3.03 eV) these materials can only be activated by UVA light [24]. Application of TiO₂ on surfaces for pollutant removal through a solar-driven photocatalytic oxidation process in air is well documented [25,26]. Visual evidence of lateral and remote oxidation of soot by UVA-irradiated titanium dioxide thin films has been reported [27]. The elimination process of carbon particles on outdoor surfaces at ambient conditions is however quite slow [28]. Chin et al. developed a kinetic model of photocatalytic soot oxidation and assumed two pathways of CO₂ formation [29,30]: a direct soot oxidation to CO₂ and a multistep reaction for CO₂ generation from intermediate species of unknown nature. The oxidizing species generated by the photoactivation process are assumed to be superoxide anions $(O_2^{\bullet-})$ and hydroxyl radicals (HO*), derived from molecular oxygen and adsorbed water molecules, respectively [31-33]. Evidence from EPR and FTIR spectroscopy hinted at an essential role of molecular oxygen-related radicals in photocatalytic soot degradation [33]. Photocatalysis with TiO₂ has already been shown to be active in the reduction of NO_x using ammonia (photocatalytic selective catalytic reduction or, in short, photo SCR), and in ammonia oxidation [34,35]. To our knowledge, no reports are available on the use of photocatalysis for performing the oxidation of carbon using nitric oxide as an oxidizing agent under conditions relevant to engine exhaust

We investigated photocatalytic oxidation of carbon black in the presence of nitric oxide and water over commercial TiO_2 catalyst. We found that carbon can be photocatalytically oxidized into CO_2 under varied conditions. Furthermore, most of the NO is reduced to N_2 . Photocatalytic carbon oxidation with simultaneous NO_x reduction is an attractive concept for future photocatalysis-assisted exhaust after treatment systems.

2. Experimental

2.1. Materials and sample preparation

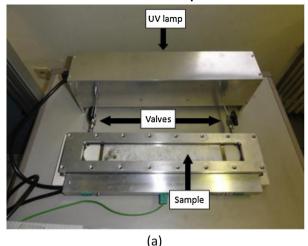
Commercial TiO_2 photocatalyst (Cristal Global Millennium PC500) was used. This TiO_2 powder consists of anatase, has a surface area of $350 \, \text{m}^2/\text{g}$ and a primary particle size of $9 \, \text{nm}$ [36]. Printex U is a popular model carbon black for evaluating carbon oxidation catalysis [37]. An amount of $5 \, \text{mg}$ of Printex U was deposited on a glass plate ($300 \, \text{mm} \times 50 \, \text{mm}$) by spreading and evaporating an isopropanol suspension. Subsequently, $50 \, \text{mg}$ of TiO_2 catalyst powder was spread over the soot-coated glass plate using isopropanol solvent as described earlier [35].

2.2. Reactor set-up

The glass plate supporting the carbon and TiO_2 layer was placed in a flat photoreactor (Fig. 1).

The thermostatic support made of stainless steel is temperature-controlled and can be heated to 200 $^{\circ}$ C. The sample was illuminated

Reactor set-up



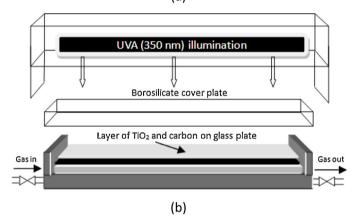


Fig. 1. Photograph (a) and schematic drawing (b) of the photoreactor.

from the top with a UVA-lamp (Rayonet) at a light intensity of 1.1 mW/cm². The UVA lamp is mounted in an aluminum housing covering the reactor block. Sealing of the reactor is done by a borosilicate glass plate (430 mm \times 70 mm) and Viton O-ring (Eriks). The headspace between the glass plate with deposited sample and the borosilicate sealing plate is ca. 2 mm high, creating a gas volume of ca. 48 cm³. NO (5% in He) and N_2 are fed from gas cylinders using mass flow controllers (Bronkhorst). Water vapor is introduced in the N₂ stream via a temperature-controlled bubbler. Analysis of the gaseous reaction products is conducted via a UV detector for NH₃, NO and NO₂ (ABB Limas 11HW) and NDIR detector for N₂O, CO and CO₂ (ABB Uras 26 instrument). The detectors have specific filters for each gas compound, minimizing interference with other gases. After passing through the UV detector, the gas is led through an ABB SCC-C gas cooler for removal of water in the gas stream and lowering of the dew point to 3 °C. All corrosive components (SO₂, NH₃, NO₂) are transferred to the condensate for protection of the NDIR instrument. Both detectors are equipped with gas-filled cuvettes for autocalibration. The detection limits are less than 1% of the smallest measurement range (Table 1). The selectivity for N₂ was estimated from the nitrogen atom balance. Based on the detection limits, the standard deviation value was estimated at $\pm 2\%$ using the formula of cumulative uncertainty.

2.3. Carbon photocatalytic oxidation experiments

In a preliminary experiment, photocatalytic carbon oxidation was investigated under continuous flow of a gas mixture with $1000\,\mathrm{ppm}$ NO and 3% H_2O in N_2 at a flow rate of $150\,\mathrm{ml/min}$,

Table 1Measurement ranges and detection limits of gases.

Gas	Smallest measurement range (ppm)	Detection limit (ppm)
NO	0–100	<1
NO_2	0-100	<1
SO_2	0-50	<0.5
NH_3	0-100	<1
N_2O	0-100	<1
co	0-400	<4
CO_2	0-300	<3

corresponding to a volumetric hourly space velocity (VHSV) of $187.5\,h^{-1}$ and a contact time of ca. $0.32\,$ min. Under continuous flow, the concentration of CO_2 and CO in the outlet of the photoreactor was below the detection limit of the analyzers (ca. 1 ppm). The contact time was too short to enable detection of photocatalytic soot oxidation products. Therefore, the photoreactor was operated in batch mode as follows. First the reactor is purged under a flow of dry N_2 carrier gas at $150\,^{\circ}C$ for $30\,$ min. Subsequently, reagent gas mixture is sent through the reactor in the absence of light. After $5\,$ min, the gas inlet and outlet are closed and the carbon with photocatalyst sample is illuminated. At the end of an illumination period, the product gas mixture is conducted to the gas analyzers using N_2 carrier gas. Subsequently, the reactor is filled with fresh reagent gas, closed again and illuminated for another period.

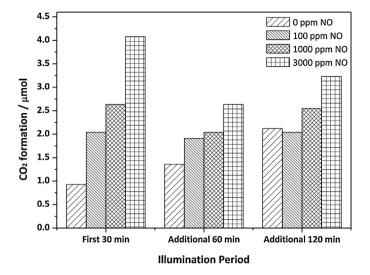
2.4. FTIR spectroscopy

The formation of nitrates on the TiO_2 surface was investigated using Fourier Transform Infrared spectroscopy (Bruker IFS 66v/s FTIR instrument). The layer of TiO_2 after saturation with nitrate, and the layer of TiO_2 and carbon after photo-oxidation experiment were scraped from the glass support, diluted with KBr and pressed into a thin wafer. The TiO_2 content of the wafers was identical (0.5 mg in 473 mg KBr). The FTIR spectra were recorded under vacuum (residual pressure 3 mbar) at room temperature.

3. Results and discussion

UVA illumination of layer-wise deposited carbon black and TiO₂ powders was performed in the flat photoreactor presented in Fig. 1. Before starting the experiment, the reactor containing the carbon and TiO₂ was flushed at 150 °C with dry N₂ gas for preconditioning. Subsequently, reagent gas mixture is sent through the reactor in the absence of light for 5 min to get a steady flow of gas mixture. Then the reactor was filled with the selected gas mixture, closed and the UVA lamp switched on for 30 min. CO2 and CO formation was quantified by flushing the reactor with N2 and sending the gases to the analyzers. The procedure was repeated with 60 min illumination, and another time with 120 min illumination. Surprisingly, even under N₂ carrier gas without NO addition, CO₂ and CO were formed. During the first illumination, about 0.9 µmol CO₂ was formed (Fig. 2, Table 2). In the second illumination, CO₂ formation was enhanced and in the third illumination, CO2 formation reached 2.1 µmol. Addition of NO to the gas phase enhanced CO₂ formation (Fig. 2, Table 2). The CO₂ formation in the first 30 min in the reactor filled with 100, 1000 and 3000 ppm NO amounted to 2.0, 2.6 and 4.1 µmol, respectively. Also in the second and third illumination period, the presence of NO enhanced CO₂ formation (Fig. 2, Table 2). The total quantity of CO₂ formed in the three illuminations in the presence of 100, 1000 and 3000 ppm NO amounted to 6.0, 7.2 and 9.9 µmol, respectively (Table 2).

CO was formed in much smaller quantities than CO₂ (Fig. 2, Table 2) in all reactions. In the first illumination period, there was a



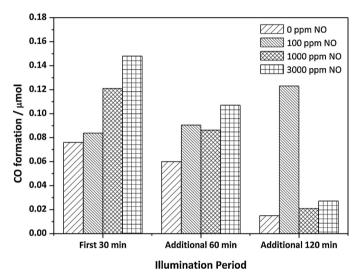


Fig. 2. CO₂ and CO formation during three consecutive UVA illuminations of 5 mg carbon black on 50 mg TiO₂ in the presence of NO at different concentrations. T = 150 °C; N₂ carrier gas; no water vapor; 0–3000 ppm NO.

trend of enhanced CO formation with increasing NO concentration. In the second and third illumination periods, no obvious influence of NO on CO formation was observed. It is surprising that CO₂ and CO were formed when the reactor was filled with N2 carrier gas only (Fig. 2, Table 2). In controlled experiments using soot without TiO₂ under illumination and in experiments in the dark with TiO₂ and carbon, there was no CO₂ nor CO formation, confirming the photocatalytic nature of the observed carbon oxidation. When the photoreactor is filled with N₂ carrier gas, the oxygen atoms of the CO_x molecules must originate from the carbon black material itself or from TiO₂, which under UV light in absence of oxygen can release some oxygen [38]. Carbon is known to be surface-oxidized and to have oxygen-containing organic groups on its surface. The carbon black sample of this study has an oxygen content of about 8 wt% [37,39]. Stoichiometric conversion of oxygen contained in the carbon to CO₂ can account for ca. 12.5 µmol CO₂ formation, which exceeds the actually observed quantity of 4.4 µmol under N₂ atmosphere after the three illuminations.

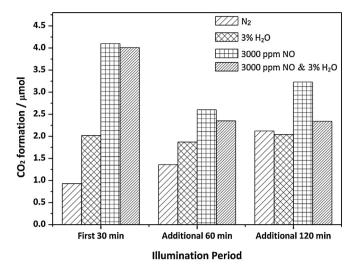
NO was reduced mainly to N_2 (Table 3), indicating that NO serves as an oxidizing agent. Filling the headspace of the reactor with NO at a concentration of 100 ppm corresponds to a supply of 0.23 μ mol O-atoms. This quantity of O-atoms is insufficient to explain the CO_2 formation (2.0, 1.9 and 2.0 μ mol in the three consecutive

Table 2CO_v formation under different reaction conditions.

Gas compos	sition	Reaction time	CO_x formation	
NO (ppm)	H ₂ O (%)		CO ₂ (µmol)	CO (µmol)
0	0	30 min	0.93	0.07
		Additional 60 min	1.36	0.06
		Additional 120 min	2.12	0.02
		Accumulative in 210 min	4.41	0.15
0	3	30 min	2.02	0.06
		Additional 60 min	1.87	0.13
		Additional 120 min	2.04	0.12
		Accumulative in 210 min	5.93	0.31
100	0	30 min	2.04	0.08
		Additional 60 min	1.91	0.09
		Additional 120 min	2.04	0.12
		Accumulative in 210 min	5.99	0.29
1000	0	30 min	2.63	0.12
		Additional 60 min	2.04	0.09
		Additional 120 min	2.55	0.02
		Accumulative in 210 min	7.22	0.23
3000	0	30 min	4.08	0.15
		Additional 60 min	2.63	0.11
		Additional 120 min	3.23	0.03
		Accumulative in 210 min	9.94	0.29
3000	3	30 min	4.01	0.11
		Additional 60 min	2.35	0.09
		Additional 120 min	2.34	0.13
		Accumulative in 210 min	8.7	0.33

illuminations, Table 2). Like in the experiment with carrier gas only, in this instance oxygen atoms originally contained in the carbon and the ${\rm TiO_2}$ serve for ${\rm CO_x}$ formation. Only at an NO concentration of 3000 ppm in the headspace of the reactor, the amount of O-atoms provided via NO matches the O-atom content of the ${\rm CO_x}$ molecules formed.

In the absence of molecular oxygen, the reactive species generated by the TiO_2 photocatalyst likely are hydroxyl radicals ($^{\bullet}OH$), derived from water molecules [31-33]. This particular TiO_2 material after pretreatment at $150\,^{\circ}C$ contains ca. $3.7\,\text{wt}\%$ residual physisorbed water [35]. In a further series of experiments, the influence of intentional water addition to the gas phase was investigated (Fig. 3, Table 2). When N_2 carrier gas was loaded with 3% water vapor ca. $2.0\,\mu\text{mol}$ CO_2 was formed in the first illumination (Fig. 3,



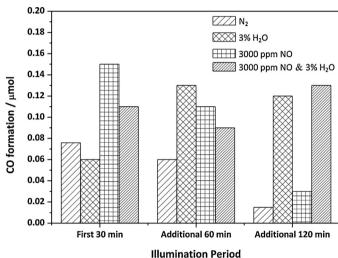


Fig. 3. CO₂ and CO formation during photocatalytic oxidation of 5 mg carbon black in the presence of 50 mg TiO_2 under four different atmospheres at 150 °C: N_2 carrier gas; 3% water vapor in N_2 ; 3000 ppm NO in N_2 ; 3000 ppm NO and 3% H_2O in N_2 .

Table 3NO conversion and selectivity in photocatalytic carbon black oxidation.

Gas composition		Reaction time	NO conversion (%)	Selectivity (9	%)	
NO (ppm)	H ₂ O (%)			N ₂ O	NO ₂	N ₂
100	0	30 min	100	11	0	88
		Additional 60 min	99	7	0	93
		Additional 120 min	99	9	0	91
100	3	10 min	92	6	0	94
		Additional 10 min	93	2	0	98
		Additional 10 min	90	2	0	98
100	3	30 min	99	35	0	65
		Additional 60 min	92	1	0	99
		Additional 120 min	95	2	0	98
1000	0	30 min	98	19	0	81
		Additional 60 min	99	17	0	83
		Additional 120 min	98	12	NO ₂ 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	88
3000	0	30 min	98	18	0	82
		Additional 60 min	98	13	0	87
		Additional 120 min	98	9	0	91
3000	3	30 min	66	26	0	74
		Additional 60 min	42	11	2	87
		Additional 120 min	45	8	3	89

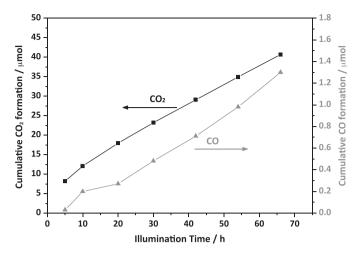


Fig. 4. Cumulative CO_2 and CO formation during long carbon photo-oxidation experiment in the presence of 3000 ppm NO and 3% H_2O . Reaction temperature: 150 °C

Table 2), which is more than the 0.9 μmol CO_2 formed using dry N_2 carrier gas (Fig. 2, Table 2), indicating an active role of water vapor. The favorable effect of water addition to the feed became less pronounced in the second and third illuminations. While in absence of NO water vapor had a positive influence on the carbon oxidation, addition of 3% water to a 3000 ppm NO containing feed had a slightly negative influence in each illumination period (Fig. 3, Table 2). The CO_2 formation over the three illumination periods amounted to 8.7 μmol in the presence of 3000 ppm NO and 3% water, compared to 9.9 μmol in the presence of 3000 ppm NO in dry gas (Fig. 3, Table 2). Water also suppressed NO conversion (Table 3). In the experiment with 3000 ppm NO and 3% water, the NO conversion was 66%, and decreased below 50% in the second and third illumination periods. In the experiment with 3000 ppm NO without water, after 30 min NO was almost completely converted (Table 3).

To verify the time needed for converting NO, an experiment with 100 ppm NO and 3% water was interrupted after 10 min of illumination (Table 3). The NO conversion amounted to 92%. The gas in the headspace of the reactor was refreshed and the illumination repeated. The NO conversion was similar to the first illumination (93%) and a third illumination with refreshed gas mixture yielded an NO conversion of 90%, with high selectivity (94–98%) for N₂. Continuous illumination for 30 min, and subsequently for 60 and 120 min also resulted in almost complete conversion of 100 ppm NO (Table 3).

A long experiment was performed to verify whether substantial amounts of carbon can be photo-oxidized. Seven consecutive illuminations for 5 up to 12 h, each time with fresh gas mixture of 3000 ppm NO and 3% H₂O in N₂ were applied. The oxidation progressed steadily (Fig. 4). In total, about 40.7 µmol CO₂ was formed together with 1.3 µmol CO, corresponding to an oxidation of about 10% of the carbon. The oxidation rate was ca. 2.9 µg carbon per hour and per mg TiO₂. The highest carbon oxidation rate of ca. 7.2 µg carbon per hour and per mg TiO₂ was obtained in the experiment with 3000 ppm NO in dry gas, corresponding to ca. 2.3 nmol s⁻¹ (Fig. 2). Carbon oxidation through reaction with NO (Eqs. (4) and (5)) occurring at temperatures exceeding 600°C [18] can be performed at 150 °C by applying TiO₂ photocatalyst. Light-duty vehicles produce on average 0.17 g km⁻¹ diesel soot [40]. Considering the average speed in the drive cycle of $34.1 \, \text{km} \, \text{h}^{-1}$, this corresponds to a PM production of ca. $5.8\,\mathrm{g}\,\mathrm{h}^{-1}$. Photo-oxidation of this quantity of carbon would require about 0.8 kg of TiO₂. This is of course a high amount, but it shows that optimization of the system and combination of thermal NO₂-assisted carbon oxidation and photocatalysis could be an option. It can be expected that carbon photo-oxidation

Table 4NO conversion and selectivity in long carbon photo-oxidation experiment (Fig. 4).

Illumination period/duration (h)	NO conversion (%)	Selectiv	Selectivity (%)		
		N ₂ O	NO ₂	N ₂	
1/5	98	15	0	85	
2/5	81	11.7	0.3	88	
3/10	98	9.9	0.1	89.9	
4/10	91	10.9	0.7	88.4	
5/12	91	12.1	0.7	87.2	
6/12	87	13.0	0.9	86.2	
7/12	83	13.7	1.0	85.3	

will be further enhanced in the presence of molecular oxygen next to NO_{ν} .

The incident light intensity of this photoreactor is about 2.9×10^{17} photons s⁻¹. Therefore, the formal quantum efficiency for this photocatalytic process is ca. 4.8×10^{-3} CO₂ molecules per photon. Assuming carbon oxidation to be a 4-electron redox reaction, an electron/photon formal quantum efficiency of 0.019 can be estimated from the formal quantum efficiency. This value is much higher than that reported in photocatalytic oxidation of burning T-lite' soot on TiO₂ coating under UVA irradiation $(4.4 \times 10^{-4})[28]$.

The NO conversion and selectivity in the seven illuminations of Fig. 4 are reported in Table 4. The catalyst was most active in the first 5 h of the reaction achieving 98% NO conversion with 85% selectivity for N_2 . Trace amounts of NO_2 were formed during the reaction and N_2O is the main by-product. The NO conversion decreased slightly in subsequent photo-oxidation.

Formation of surface nitrates is a documented cause of deactivation of TiO_2 photocatalysts [41]. Even in the absence of molecular oxygen, reaction pathways leading to nitric acid exist (Eqs. (6)–(8)). Nitrogen monoxide reacts with ${}^{\bullet}OH$ radicals to HNO_2 , followed by reaction with ${}^{\bullet}OH$ leading to NO_2 formation. Depending on the surface hydration, NO_2 can be released to the gas phase, or further oxidation with ${}^{\bullet}OH$ to HNO_3 occurs [42]. NO_2 is a source of HNO_3 . NO_2 and HNO_3 can give rise to surface nitrates on TiO_2 .

$$NO + {}^{\bullet}OH \rightarrow HNO_2$$
 (6)

$$HNO_2 + {}^{\bullet}OH \rightarrow NO_2 + H_2O \tag{7}$$

$$NO_2 + {}^{\bullet}OH \rightarrow HNO_3$$
 (8)

 $(9)2NO_2 + H_2O \rightarrow HNO_2 + HNO_3$

Analysis of the gaseous reaction products (Table 3) revealed that only traces of NO_2 were formed in all experiments. The highest NO_2 formation was observed in the experiment with 3000 ppm NO and 3% water, using 30 min illumination (Table 3). Longer illumination times under this atmosphere lead to higher NO conversion and lower NO_2 concentrations, suggesting NO_2 to be an intermediate product. NO_2 can be involved in carbon oxidation (Eq. (1)) and nitrate formation reactions (Eqs. (8) and (9)).

The formation of nitrate was investigated using FTIR spectroscopy. For reference, a TiO₂ (50 mg) layer without carbon was saturated with nitrate in the photoreactor by applying a continuous flow of 30 ml/min of a gas mixture with 3000 ppm NO, 5% O₂ and 3% H₂O in N₂ at 150 °C under illumination for 3 h. The FTIR spectrum of the TiO₂ (Fig. 5) shows a sharp absorption band at 1386 cm⁻¹ assigned to nitrate formed on the surface of TiO₂ photocatalyst [43]. The small peak at 1634 cm⁻¹ and the broad band around 3410 cm⁻¹ are ascribed to the bending and stretching vibrations of physisorbed water [33,44]. The broad peak centered at 530 cm⁻¹ is ascribed to bending of Ti–O bonds [45].

The mixture of residual carbon and spent TiO_2 photocatalyst recovered after the long photo-oxidation experiment (66 h) in the presence of 3000 ppm NO and 3% water (Fig. 4) showed similar FTIR bands (Fig. 5). The additional band at 1260 cm⁻¹

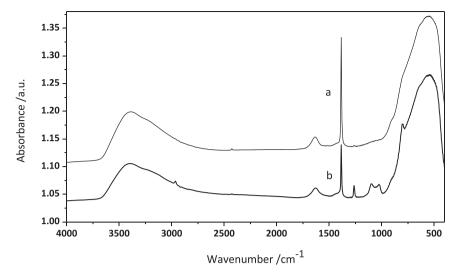


Fig. 5. FTIR spectra of nitrate-saturated TiO₂ photocatalyst layer (a) and of the mixture of TiO₂ and carbon black after 66 h photo-oxidation experiment of Fig. 4 (b).

in the carbon-containing sample may be caused by the C–O–C stretching in an anhydride and an aryl ether linkage in the carbon material [46,47]. The intensity of the nitrate band on the spent TiO₂ photocatalyst was lower than in the nitrate saturated reference. The maximum density of NO₃ groups on the TiO₂ surface has been reported to be around 0.5 molecules nm $^{-2}$ [41], corresponding to 1 NO₃-group per 2 nm 2 . For the present TiO₂ sample with specific surface area of 350 m $^2/g$, nitrate saturation would require 14.5 μ mol nitrates. Assuming a same absorbance in the two samples, the nitrate content of the spent TiO₂ photocatalyst was estimated to be ca. 6.3 μ mol nitrates. Compared to the ca. 62 μ mol NO converted in the long experiment, the share of NO that is converted to nitrate is about 10%. In the calculation of the selectivity of NO conversion in Tables 3 and 4, nitrate formation was neglected, which, according to this FTIR study can be justified.

Nevertheless, the progressive coverage of the TiO_2 surface with nitrate may be responsible for the observed deactivation and the lower formation of CO_2 in subsequent illuminations in presence of NO (Figs. 2 and 3). The highest carbon photo-oxidation activity was observed in the presence of 3000 ppm NO in dry conditions (Fig. 3). The slight negative impact of water addition on carbon photo-oxidation (Fig. 3) may be explained by the nitrate formation according to Eqs. (6)–(8). At this stage of the research, we can only speculate on the reaction mechanism. Photocatalysis may provide a low-temperature reaction pathway to form NO_2 .

4. Conclusions

The photocatalytic oxidation of carbon black layer deposited on TiO₂ coating at 150 °C is demonstrated. When a mixture of carbon and TiO₂ is illuminated in the absence of oxidizing agent, CO₂ molecules are formed from O-atoms originally contained in the carbon black and the TiO₂. Nitric oxide is an effective oxidizing agent in the photocatalytic carbon decomposition. It is reduced mainly to N2, and to N2O. The highest carbon oxidation rate of 7.2 µg/h/mgTiO₂ was obtained using 3000 ppm NO in dry N₂ carrier gas. In the absence of water vapor, the residual water content of the TiO₂ and the carbon after pretreatment at 150 °C was sufficient for providing a source of reactive radicals. Addition of 3% water slightly decreased the carbon photo-oxidation activity. This observation can be explained by enhanced formation of surface nitrates poisoning the TiO₂ photocatalyst. Under the investigated reaction conditions, this deactivation by nitrate is a slow process. After 66 h of illumination about 40% of the TiO₂ surface is covered with nitrate.

Photocatalytic carbon oxidation at $150\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ is of potential interest in exhaust gas purification as photocatalysis could assist the regeneration of particulate filters at low temperature. An attractive feature is the reduction of NO to nitrogen, achieving DeNO_{χ} without the need of urea or other reducing agent. While NO_2 -driven regeneration necessitates a temperature of at least $250\,^{\circ}\text{C}$, photocatalysis is taking place already at $150\,^{\circ}\text{C}$. Photo-assisted carbon oxidation could be combined with the current thermally driven regeneration processes by implementing TiO_2 and UVA sources such as small LED lights in wall flow filter honeycombs. Currently, we are investigating the effect of molecular oxygen on the photocatalytic carbon oxidation process.

Acknowledgment

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Corrigendum

Corrigendum to "Photocatalytic carbon oxidation with nitric oxide" [Appl. Catal. B: Environ. 166–167 (2015) 374–380]



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The authors regret to inform that the numerical values of the carbon oxidation rates were incorrect.

In the long experiment of Fig. 4 the carbon oxidation rate was ca. $0.4\,\mu g$ carbon per hour and per mg TiO₂. The highest carbon oxidation rate of ca. $2\,\mu g$ carbon per hour and per mg TiO₂ was obtained in the experiment with 3000 ppm NO in dry gas, corresponding to ca. $2.3\,\text{nmol}\,\text{s}^{-1}$ (Fig. 2). Photooxidation of carbon particles emitted by a light duty vehicle would require about $2.9\,\text{kg}$ of TiO₂.

Authors would like to apologize for the inconvenience caused.

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